The Classical Bulletin

monthly from November through April by the Department of Classical Languages at Saint Louis University, Saint Louis 8, Subscription price: \$2.00 a year. Entered as second-class matter at the Saint Louis, Missouri, Post-Office under the Act of March 3, 1879.

TIME 33

NOVEMBER 1956

NUMBER 1

Platos' Crito and Cicero's In Catilinam 1

That Cicero was an admirer of Plato is clear from hilosophical works. He followed Plato's examn using the dialogue form for the presentation hilosophical ideas; he called one of his major ophical works Academica, in memory of the of Academus, where Plato used to talk with sciples; he wrote his De Re Publica as a Roman part of Plato's great dialogue on the state; followed this, as Plato had done, with a discusof De Legibus. He translated the Protagoras the Timaeus into Latin. In the first of his anae Disputationes, in discussing the question, death an evil?" he refers to Plato's doctrine (set in Rep. 4 and 9) of the tripartite nature of the (20), speaks with admiration of Plato's librum, est de animo-that is, the Phaedo (24)-menthe proofs for the pre-existence of the soul A Socrates presents in the Meno and in eo sere, quem habuit eo ipso die, quo excessit e vita 57), alludes to Socrates' noble bearing in the courtn on the day of his trial and to his refusal to pe from prison when escape would have been , and says that Socrates, tum paene in manu iam rtiferum illud tenens poculum, spoke in such a y ut non ad mortem trudi, verum in caelum eretur escendere (71); and he quotes in Latin the ing section of the Apologia, in which Socrates plains why he believes that all will be well with im after death (97-99).

Most of us know these facts, but we do not always teep our eyes open for other evidence of Cicero's interest in Plato; and so we may read the first oration against Catiline over and over without realizing that this speech provides, in two different passages, dear indications of Plato's influence.¹

Socrates in the Crito

The scene in which Socrates, a few days before his death, cum facile posset educi e custodia, noluit, has been preserved for us in Plato's Crito. In this dialogue Socrates, in prison, is visited by his old friend and fellow-demesman, Crito, who, knowing that the day of Socrates' execution is imminent, tries to permade him to escape, promising to arrange the practical details and to provide a refuge for him in Thesaly. Socrates, to Crito's annoyance, insists on discussing the right and wrong of this proposal; and Crito listens, at first with impatience, and then with

In this issue . . .

Plato's Crito and Cicero's In Catilinam 1
Cornelia C. Coulter 1

Military Arts and Lucretius' Madness Frank C. Bourne 3

Didacticism and Lucretian Genius Sister M. Ann Patrick Ware, S.L.

Another Thousand Years
Arithmetic—Latin Style
Willis Knapp Jones

Breviora: Deaths among Classicists, I (page 8).
Meetings of Classical Interest, I (page 9). Miscellanea (Leo Max Kaiser, page 9). Current Announcement on Woodrow Wilson Fellowships (Robert F. Goheen, page 10). Two Manuscripts of Rinuccio's Vita Aesopi (Chauncey Edgar Finch, page 10). Quaedam Personalia (page 10).

Book Reviews: Constantine J. Vourveris, Haidià xal Haidia (John E. Rexine, page 11). Vernon J. Bourke, St. Thomas Aquinas, On the Truth of the Catholic Faith (Marcus Anthony Haworth, S.J., page 11). Olwen Brogan, Roman Gaul (Marcus Anthony Haworth, S.J., page 11). Sven Lundström, Übersetzungstechnische Untersuchungen auf dem Gebiete der Christlichen Latinität (M. Joseph Costelloe, S.J., page 11). Sister Marie Vianney O'Reilly, C.S.J., Sancti Aureli Augustini De Excidio Urbis Romae Sermo (M. Joseph Costello, S.J., page 11).

Materials Available through the Office of THE CLASSICAL BULLETIN

reluctant acceptance, of one step after another in the development of the argument, until Socrates reaches the conclusion that we should never do an unjust act, even to those who have dealt unjustly with us—at which point Crito, in a kind of panic, is unable to answer at all.

Socrates then begins again: "Well, then, look at the matter this way. If, when we are preparing to run away (or whatever one should call it) from here, the Laws and the general welfare of the city should come and, standing beside us, should say, 'Tell me,2 Socrates, what have you in mind to do? Are you not planning, by this deed that you are undertaking, to destroy us, the Laws, and the whole city, so far as is in your power? Or does it seem to you that that city can still exist and not be overturned, in which the judgments that have taken place in the courtroom have no force, but are made powerless and are utterly destroyed by private citizens?" The speaker goes on, in the tone of gentle remonstrance that one might use to a forgetful child, presenting the case, first of the laws dealing with marriage and progeny, and then of the laws concerned with the education and training of children and the rights and privileges of the adult citi-

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zen, and finally reminds Socrates that, if he now breaks the covenant which he has made with the Laws of Athens, all right-minded men will view him with suspicion; the Laws on earth will be angry with him, and their brethren, the Laws in Hades, will not receive him in kindly fashion, knowing that, so far as was in his power, he had tried to destroy the Laws of Athens.

Cicero in In Catilinam I

In the earlier part of the first oration against Catiline (7), Cicero has branded Catiline as a traitor and a criminal, whom decent people fear and shun. Si te parentes timerent atque odissent, he says, neque eos ulla ratione placare posses, tu, opinor, ab eorum oculis aliquo concederes. Nunc te patria, quae communis est parens omnium nostrum, odit ac metuit, et . . . sic agit et quodam modo tacita loquitur. Then follows the scathing denunciation beginning, Nullum iam aliquot annis facinus exstitit nisi per te, and ending, Quam ob rem discede atque hunc mihi timorem eripe; si est verus, ne opprimar, sin falsus, ut tandem aliquando timere desinam.

In its attempt to influence the course of action of a citizen, this speech resembles the address of the Laws to Socrates;3 but Catiline's past record of crime makes it impossible to hope for reform; and so, at the close of the speech, where the Laws of Athens beg Socrates not to listen to Crito (that is, not to try to escape from prison and leave the city), Catiline's patria can only urge him to depart. To these words of their communis parens Cicero, speaking in his own person, adds: Haec si tecum, ut dixi, patria loquatur, nonne impetrare debeat, etiam si vim adhibere non possit?—the si loquatur clause echoing, in both thought and grammatical form, the future less vivid condition which, in Plato's Greek, introduces the speech of the laws.

A Second Passage

The second passage comes toward the end of the oration, where Cicero is preparing to defend himself against criticism for allowing Catiline to leave the city, free and unmolested. This passage, too, contains a si loquatur clause; but this time the clause stands, as it did in Plato, in an introductory position; and the whole idea is elaborated and carried to a climax. Etenim, says Cicero, si mecum patria, quae mihi vita mea multo est carior, si cuncta Italia, si omnis res publica loquatur; "M. Tulli, quid agis?" ... The question, quid agis? is practically equivalent to the first sentence spoken by the Laws in the Crito; the tone, as in the Crito, is one of remonstrance rather than violent denunciation; and the name, M. Tulli, like the name of Socrates in the address of the Laws, suggests deep feeling. Just as the Laws warn Socrates of tragic results if he should

attempt to escape from prison, so Cicero's patric warns him of the ruin that will come upon all Italy if he allows Catiline to go free; and to this criticism which he has called prope iustam, Cicero makes to

Obviously, both passages in Cicero's oration were inspired by the personification of the laws in Platon Crito: and Cicero himself has indicated the relation ship by using the si patria loquatur clause (an ech of Plato's Greek) at the close of the first passage and the beginning of the second. In some ways, the sits. ation is closer to that of the Crito in the first passage than in the second; but Catiline's personality and his past record are so different from those of Socrate that no one could expect the same outcome. In the second passage we are conscious at once of a close resemblance between Socrates and the person at dressed; and this likeness is reinforced by the position of the si patria loquatur clause, in the introductory position here, as in Plato, instead of at the close. The two passages are in a sense companion pieces, presenting contrasted figures: the lawles citizen, whom his native city urges to depart, the she may be freed from fear and danger; the loval citizen, to whom his city is dearer than his own life and who listens to her voice, as Socrates listened to the voice of the Laws.

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NOTES

NOTES

1 Cicero, Cat. 1.17-18, 27-29; Plato, Crito 50a-54d. In Dyer-Seymour edition of Plato, Apology, Crito, etc. (Botm and New York 1885 and 1908) in a note on this section of the dialogue, says: "The personification of the state and the dialogue, says: "The personification of the state and the laws which here follows is greatly admired and has be abundantly imitated, e.g. by Cicero in his first Catilinania Oration (7.18)." Anthon's edition of Select Orations of Cicero (New York 1846) comments on Cat. 1.27, M. In quid agus?—"Compare the address of his country to Socalia in the Criton of Plato," and quotes the opening sentence of the address in Greek. No modern school edition of the Orationes available to me mentions Plato in connection with either of these passages. 2 The singular pronoun suggest that one of the Laws is acting as spokesman, just as in ore drama one member of the chorus might speak for the whole group. 3 One notes certain similarities in detail, particularly the emphasis on Catiline's disregard of leges and quaestion, and the use of the verb everto, equivalent to dvarging (Maria 1884). and the use of the verb everto, equivalent to drarging (76 50b). 4 Cicero's term res publica ("the commonwelli" reproduces the Greek phrase translated above, "the gent welfare of the city."

He <Lucretius> has, in the first place, the free ness of feeling, the living sense of the wonder of the world, which is a great charm in the older poets of all great literatures,-in Homer, Dante, Chaucer; and this sense he communicates by words used their simplest and directest meaning. The life which animates and gladdens the familiar face of earth sea, and sky,-of river, wood, field, and hill-sideis vividly and immediately reproduced.

-W. Y. Sellar, The Roman Poets of the Republic.

Volume 33

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Military Arts and Lucretius' Madness

Incretius' acount of the development of the miliary arts concludes with a description of the use of wild beasts in warfare (5.1308-1340). The passage describes in detail the terrible havoc wrought by the use of lions, lionesses, bulls, and boars. Indeed, so hideous is the picture that the poet says that he thinks it hardly credible that mankind could not foresee the result of such experiments (1341-1343); but if not in our world, perhaps it happened in one of the others (1344-1346). He concludes by saying that it is, too, a device which might be used by desperate men, not in hope of victory, but in order to nunish the enemy to as great a degree as possible

The passage has proved a stumbling block to countless editors. The ingenuity in transposition, exclusion, and interpretation of such scholars as lachmann, Munro, Brieger, Giussani, Ernout, Martin, and Housman has been exercised here. J. P. Postgate (Bull. John Rylands Library 10 [1926] 194-149) declared that this passage proved that Lucretius' mind was no longer normal, that he allowed his morbid imagination to picture events with no basis in fact as he himself realized, and that he then clutched at an exact but meaningless formula to extricate himself. In his fine edition (Oxford 1947) Cyril Bailey (III 1529) says, "This paragraph, more than anything else in the poem, makes me wonder whether Jerome was not right, and that Lucretius' mind was from time to time deranged."

The Epicurean Problem Involved

These difficulties spring from a failure to recognize the Epicurean, the rational, problem involved in this passage. A few moments' reflection should indicate, I think, that this passage is not an "excrescence," but the work of an honest attempt to remain true to the basic concepts of Epicureanism.

In the first place, the passage is not an abrupt intrusion. A discussion of the use of inanimate objects in war found a natural sequel in the use of animate objects. There is a discussion, under this heading, of cavalry, charioteers, and elephants (1297-1307), and this is a perfectly logical arrangement. What is more, if other animals ever were used and are to be discussed, surely the following passage is the appropriate position for such discus-

The lurid details of the description have been cited as somehow indicative of mental derangement. So has the fact that historical parallels to the use of the wild beasts that Lucretius names can not be found. These really prove, however, only that Lucretius' powers of description and imagination were great, a fact to which the whole poem is evidence; and these powers, indeed, led him to reflect on the blind-

ness of the experimenters in that they were not equally astute.

The Passage and Epicurean Epistemology

The most important thing about the passage is, however, that it is a perfect example of Lucretius' devotion and fidelity to Epicurean epistemology. After discussing animals which were in actual use in warfare, it occurred to Lucretius that there is no earthly reason why man should have conceived the capture, and taming to the ways of war, only of those animals which proved so adaptable. Indeed, to assert that they immediately hit upon the two which had proved most successful, the horse and the elephant, would be an unfounded arrogance, would intimate the existence of some guiding principle, quite at variance with the Epicurean doctrine that there is no concept which does not owe its origin to experience.

Lucretius was constrained, therefore, to suppose that a number of beasts other than horses and elephants, such as lions, boars, and bulls, might present themselves to the mind of ancient man as candidates for utility in warfare. Indeed, on the face of it there seems no good reason why a wolf should become the fida canum vis, while lions generally proved quite intractable throughout history.

While Epicurean doctrine, then, encouraged Lucretius to imagine the unrecorded trials and errors of primitive men in the martial use of beasts, the experience of centuries of civilization put him in a position to appreciate the probable results of such experiments, and his genius prompted a vivid portrayal of these results. But his own intelligence led him to wonder whether even a brief acquaintance with these beasts might not appraise most experimenters of the danger. Still, in an infinite Universe, with an infinite number of worlds and infinite number of chances, no doubt the attempt would occasionally be made—though even so, perhaps by desperate men who would be incited by the expectation of the damage that could be inflicted on the enemy rather than by any hope of victory.

Frank C. Bourne

Princeton University

The swineherd Eumaeus, eager to make Penelope understand the charm of the newly arrived stranger (Odysseus), has recourse to a simile: "Even as when a man gazes on a minstrel, whom the gods have taught to sing words of yearning joy to mortals, and they have a ceaseless desire to hear him, so long as he will sing—even so he charmed me, sitting by me in the halls."-Sir Richard C. Jebb, The Growth and Influence of Classical Greek Poetry.

Homines, dum docent, discunt.—Sen. Ep. 7.9.

Didacticism and Lucretian Genius

The province of didactic poetry is a difficult one, because it must meet at one and the same time the end of poetry and the requirements of philosophy. Science and poetry proceed by different methods to distinct goals, even when they are treating the same subject. Now if it is the part of a philosopher to approach a problem gravely, coolly weighing arguments, and forming a conclusion by objective investigation of premises, it is the function of the poet to appreciate the conclusion, not admiring it in itself, but establishing emotional relationships toward a fuller enjoyment and realization of the beauty and truth therein.

The realm of the one is logical, cold, formal, and objective; the other is warm and impassioned, creative and subjective. The scientist proceeds from knowledge of the particular to the universal; the poet, on the other hand, interprets the universal in terms of particular human values. No wonder, then, that there have been some who declare that there can be no such thing as didactic poetry.²

"A poet may be a philosopher, but the price is heavy—he must renounce all the charm of all the Muses. There must be no dallying in the romantic groves."

Lucretian Purpose and Medium

The scope of Lucretius' De Rerum Natura is a vast and majestic one, aiming to remove from the mind of man fear of the gods and fear of death through exposition of the formation and operation of the physical universe. Sublime in theme and purpose, with a grandiose sweep of the brush, it paints the origins of the world, of man, and of all nature in terms of seething atoms. And this work of Lucretius, the embodiment of Epicurus' doctrines, has long been a subject for literary critics. From the controverted words of his contemporary Cicero, Lucretii poemata . . . sunt multis luminibus ingeni, multae tamen artis,5 to the present time, the work of Lucretius has been analyzed, weighed, and valued highly. Statius and Ovid note his sublimity. Fowler speaks of him as "the noblest mind among all Roman thinkers" and of his work as "some of the greatest poetry ever written.8 Shotwell terms the De Rerum Natura the "most marvelous performance in all antique literature." Duff pays tribute to its epic qualities when he says that Lucretius' "unrivalled feat was to make Epicureanism epic."10 Durant also calls it a "noble epic." That Lucretius "stands alone as the great contemplative poet of antiquity . . . in the union of poetic feeling with scientific passion" is the opinion of Sellar.12 "Above all others that smote the Latin lyre,"13 Lang characterizes him.

The poetic charm of the *De Rerum Natura* is such that it grips us today even though we have long since

realized that its content is fallacious and at time preposterous. Let us proceed to a recognition of some of the specific poetic qualities in Lucretim which have merited these praises for him, and the note the check and burden which his didactic them imposed on these.

Art addresses itself not to the abstract reason but to be sensibility and image making faculty; it is concerned with outward appearances: it employs illusions; its world is muthat which is revealed by pure thought; it sees truth, but its concrete manifestations, not as an abstract idea.¹⁵

Pervasive Effect of Lucretian Verse

According to these standards, close observation would seem to be a requisite for the poet. And this is a preeminent tendency in Lucretius. From a spring unnumbered references to the world about him: the ravages of the wind (1.271-279), the unseen evaporation of water from the garment hum in the sun to dry (1.306), the bronze of the status worn away by the obeisance of the faithful (1.318-319), metals as conductors of heat and cold (1.494), the density of liquids (2.391-397), the gradual encroachments of death upon the body (3.526-530), the parts of a snake writhing after death (3.657-663), and scores of others.

Nor is there lacking to Lucretius a sympathy with all living things. This can scarcely be more beautifully illustrated than by the celebrated passage in the second book on the grief of the cow for her lost calf (352-366).

Pictures illustrating his "science book" spring readily to the mind of Lucretius. In his eagerness to convey his message and to convince his reader thoroughly and beyond all doubt, he executes master-pieces of sensuous imagery and description:

iam tibi barbaricae vestes Meliboeaque fulgens purpura Thessalico concharum tacta colore, aurea pavonum ridenti imbuta lepore saecla. . . . (2.500-503).

Nam saepe in colli tondentes pabula laeta lanigerae reptant pecudes quo quamque vocantes invitant herbae gemmantes rore recenti, et satiati agni ludunt blandeque coruscant (2.317-320).

Metaphors of delicate beauty illustrate the most prosaic of arguments:

concharumque genus parili ratione videmus pingere telluris gremium, qua mollibus undis litoris incurvi bibulam pavit aequor harenam (2.374-376).

Lucretian Eagerness to Convince

The vigor and sincerity of Lucretius are evident to the most casual reader. Indeed, he violates his own ideal of "philosophic calm" in his ardent endeavor to convince. Time and again he begs the reader to bear with him only long enough to give him a chance to advance proofs (1.102-106, 265-270); to be beguiled by his "honey" while he is administering the "wormwood" of his difficult doctrine (1.936-950, 4.11-25). His treatise is punctuated with nunc age, dico igitur, and quod quoniam docui. Itis

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his very vigor, which ought properly to be wanting m an Epicurean, that has made critics see an antilacretius at work in Lucretius.16

In the matter of rhythmic suitability, one must, while subtracting a sizable portion of the verses, braid Lucretius' achievement as a polisher of the nie meter. It may be, as Behn has said,17 that lacretius poured his thin wisdom into austere hexmeters, but at the same time his contribution to the facile and dexterous use of the hitherto unwieldly form can hardly be overrated. The Lucretian hexmeter stands midway between that of Ennius and that of Vergil.18

Indeed, Lucretius made an inestimable contribuion to the formation of Latin poetry as a whole:

quand même on ne serait curieux que de litérature, il y mait grand intérêt à voir, au moment où la prose latine a memtré la perfection avec Salluste, César et Cicéron, coment un grand esprit fait effort pour amener au même point potsie encore attardée, par quel labeur il dompte un sujet usi vaste que rebelle, comment enfin la vertu d'une inspiram puissante lui fait porter avec une robuste légerèté le plus ud fardeau qui ait jamais pesé sur le génie d'un poète. 19

The Difficulties Besetting Lucretius

What are the difficulties which beset Lucretius at the very outset of his work? First of all, the vast and miscellaneous range of his subject. Whereas there is a certain majesty in a theme which proposes to free men's minds from the shackles of fear and expound to them the structure of the universe, still, if the approach to that theme is the approach of the teacher, numerous trials follow. It is one thing to enunciate the tremendous concept of infinite space and to embellish it with the example of a man who

. si quis procurrat ad oras ultimus extremas iaciatque volatile telum (1.969-970),

and quite another to have to deal with the petty minutiae which must be explained if the system is to

Nunc age quam tenui natura constet imago percipe. Et in primis, quoniam primordia tantum sunt infra nostros sensus tantoque minora quam quae primum oculi coeptant non posse tueri, nunc tamen id quoque uti confirmem, exordia rerum cunctarum quam sint subtilia percipe paucis (4.110-115).

Or, such a passage as the following easily jars the reader's sensibilities from the grand and majestic concept of the whole:

Praeterea radit vox fauces saepe facitque asperiora foras gradiens arteria clamor. Quippe per angustum turba maiore coorta ire foras ubi coeperunt primordia vocum, scilicet expleti quoque ianua raditur oris (4.528-532).

Secondly, the abstruse character of the theme of the poem necessarily makes it a not impossible, but at best a difficult, one to handle. To stake as a premise the matter-and-void theory and to attempt to explain all things spiritual in those terms is certainly an impediment to poetic genius. The long, tedious assages where the faculties of a spiritual soul are reduced to atomic proportions, and the unconvincing

explanation of free will, are obscure, unfinished, and shaky.

Thirdly, much of the argument is dry and futile. Lucretius has, after all, made his poem out of the death of poesy, removing fear, love, superstition, error, myth, custom, tale, and tradition, and is left with nothing more ecstatic than the bleakness he discovers.20 It seems as though he welcomed a chance to abandon the strict statement of principles for the happier fields of poetic analogy.

The fourth difficulty is one inherent in the Latin tongue, its inadequacy as a vehicle for philosophical thought. Lucretius himself complains about the patrii sermonis egestas (1.139, 832: 3.260). This forces him to use such badly prosaic lines as;

Nam si de nilo fierent, ex omnibu' rebus omne genus nasci posset, nil semine egeret (1.159-160).

Nec tamen undique corporea stipata tenentur omnia natura; namque est in rebus inane (1.329-330).

Lucretius' Struggles with Himself

What further difficulties did Lucretius encounter in his philosophical treatise? First of all, an apparent struggle with himself. His mind was predominantly the mind of a poet rather than that of a philosopher.21 But his topic forced him to subordinate his poetry to science. Fortunately, the very weakness of Greek science, namely, that it was guess work because it was not founded on experiment, saved Lucretius, since observation is the only sphere of science that poetry can assimilate.22 Thus he is led to wide use of analogy, a happy use from a literary viewpoint, but an exorbitant and unsatisfactory one if we are to look at it with a scientific eye. After all, because objects are alike in one respect proves nothing as to their resemblance in other ways. But Lucretius bombards his pupil with example upon example, until it would seem that he himself is carried away, not by his desire of presenting proof so much as by his eagerness to exclaim over the wonders of

Bailey points out that irregularities in meter are more frequent in the argumentative sections of the poem where technical words are likely to require them.23

Some Evaluations of Lucretius

As to the greatness of the De Rerum Natura, there can be no doubt. We may conclude only that, if Lucretius had poured his same impassioned enthusiasm into a more tractable poetic subject, he would perhaps have claimed universal first place among the Roman poets. Indeed, Andrew Lang would grant him that place even now:

The sublimity of the language of Lucretius, when he can leave his attempts at scientific proof, the closeness of his observation, his enjoyment of life, of Nature, and his powers of painting them, a certain largeness of touch, and noble

(Continued on page 7)

The Classical Bulle

Published by the Department of Classical Languages at Saint Louis University

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Volume 33

November 1956

Number 1

IT ORIAL

Another Thousand Years

"The Eternal City's ancient Arch of Constantine is considered good for another thousand years now," thanks to a bracing operation designed to secure slabs of stone loosened by the pound of modern traffic. So reports an Associated Press staff writer, from Rome, under date of August 26, 1956, characterizing the fourth-century structure as "one of the best preserved triumphal arches in the world."

This great monument, celebrating Constantine's victory over Maxentius in 312 A.D., has already stood for more than fifteen hundred years. "Another thousand years" would accord it the impressive age of more than two and one-half millennia-surely an imposing span of time, even for generations of men whose look to the past, through patient and continuing research, is being constantly lengthened.

There is a certain timelessness about structures reared by the hands of men centuries ago. When those men were Greeks or Romans, their structures stand as mile-stones along history's way, marking one great avenue of the many influences which brought our civilization of today into being. But more impressive even than such great artifacts are the surviving elements in a reading in our own generation of literary masterpieces they composed, or in a continuing employment by some modern speech of words and forms of utterance derived from those same ancient tongues.

Those engaged in the teaching of Greek and Latin do not always themselves realize the high dignity of that with which they are ultimately concerned-language, speech, the communication of human thoughts and imaginings and feelings. This it is that the study and dissemination of any human tongue fundamentally possesses—a concern with the means of in terchange between one human mind and another Whatever can be done to sharpen, improve, accele, ate, beautify that interchange will be a precious on tribution to humankind. For man, as a social bein is by nature prone to inform others of what is in his own mind-so much so, in fact, that the basic malin of the lie seems to consist in its being a location contra mentem, as students of ethics say, "an utter. ance counter to the mind."

Thus a concern with language as an activity fundamentally and abidingly human, an activity at the very well-springs of society and all social action, is the high summons to the language teacher. His privilege it is to understand how permanent the function of human speech is; how in any foreseeable future man, in his essential constitution, will continue to rely heavily on his ability to express himself in language; how the fear of dealing in disc. plines which may vanish or alter essentially in the generations yet to be need never plague the mentar of language. With all the august transformation science and technology may achieve in the remaining portion of this twentieth century and in the centuries beyond, man, as a rational animal, will continue to be an articulate animal.

We may well suppose, in the onward roll of the years, that human language will improve—that speech will become a subtler and more flexible instrument to mirror externally the individual mind and imagination and heart. Such has been the course of language heretofore, among Greeks and Romans as well. It has improved and adapted itself to new demands. It has become more perfect in response to the intelligent effort directed towards its betterment

Today's curriculum planners are distracted with many demands and many objectives. But among the various aims of formal education, a high place must be reserved for language study. The teacher of the classical languages has the happy privilege, not alone of instructing in the matchless tongues of an cient Hellas and ancient Rome, but of awaking in his students a sense of awesome privilege and power of language itself. For language, as one of man's proudest faculties, is a possession of permanence: "for another thousand years," yes-or for as many years as man in his present constitution shall continue to inhabit this globe.

It was by the rectitude and manliness of his character, as much as by his learning, his quick and tree discernment, his keen raillery and vivid protraiture that he <Lucilius> became the favourite of his time and country, and, alone among Roman writers, succeeded in introducing a new form of literature into the world.

W. Y. Sellar, The Roman Poets of the Republic.

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Arithmetic-Latin Style*

How did little Marcus, son of Galba, agricola, larn to do his arithmetic problems? Probably he never thought about the slow development of what we know of as Roman numerals, from the time when some early ancestor held up one finger to indicate one, then one hand for five, and then both hands for in. (Incidentally, hand signals for numbers are still used in grain auctions.) Marcus would never know what primitive genius decided to indicate higher values by Greek letters, using psi (looking like a U, with a vertical line running through it), for 50, and a theta (a circle filled by a horizontal line) for centum. Phi (a circle crossed by a vertical line) stood for mille.

Then some thinker among the Etruscans, perhaps anticipating the Latin love of inscriptions, began simplifying the notation. The divided circle of the phi, side by side and opening downward, looked like an M. Half the phi, resembling a D, indicated 500. The line inside the theta was first replaced by a dot, and then the circle alone, slightly open, took its first tep toward becoming a C. Finally the psi, with curves straightened, became ultimately an L.

Some stone mason, trying to cut dates into marble, and using a long chisel, may have been the first to change these symbols into their present forms. One tap of the mallet, and the chisel left a long line, an l, to indicate one. Two taps would make II, and so on. Roman notation on clock faces still sometimes employs IIII for four, but to continue that system indefinitely would consume space. And so two straight lines with ends touching made a V for five, and two crossed into X made ten, with two at right angles forming L for fifty.

That ended the possibilities with two lines. If Marcus had need for recording larger numbers—certainly not for the days of a month or for most of his business transactions—with three straight lines he could turn the Etruscan symbol for 100 into C. Four lines could make a D, or arranged another way, an M. To indicate other numbers, symbols could be combined. A smaller one following a larger one indicated addition. If the smaller one came first, it was to be subtracted: LX and XL.

But how could little Marcus handle these letters to do sums? In Arabic notation, which came later, the location of a figure in the whole number determined its value. The 3, for instance, at the end in 13, stands for units. At the beginning, as in 31, it stands for tens. Quite different is the Roman system where I and V and the rest never change their basic values. Little Marcus, calculating on his slate or wax tablet, probably found addition easy. Often it meant only rearranging to get all the same letters together. XI plus XII would equal XXIII. In numbers where the

smaller value preceded, he could cancel it out. XL plus XIV would sum up to LIV.

Subtracting meant more cancelling out. To take XI from LXXIII would require only the crossing out of two letters. If the minuend did not contain the Roman numerals to be subtracted, it would have to be rewritten. XXI minus V could be solved as soon as it was expressed as XVVI.

When Marcus had to multiply Roman numerals, without the use of an abacus or set of counters, the operation got more complicated. To multiply CLVI by XI, for instance, the process required that CLVI be written in the answer once for the I, then ten more times for the X. It would then appear as CLVICLVICLVI, and so on, eleven times repeated. Then the grouping of the same letters would provide the answer. Eleven of the I would make XI, up to eleven of the C to be written MC, and eventually he could proudly set down the answer: MDCCXVI.

But when he had to divide, then surely Marcus must have had to use his intelligence. First he had to break down the dividend to let the divisor be cancelled out the greatest number of times. And the number of times would provide the answer. To divide XLVIII by VIII would require it to be split into six groups of VIII, after which the answer would be obvious.

For all the efficiency of the Romans in other fields, we can be glad that the Arabs came along with their adaptation of a still earlier system, perhaps partially developed in India, to give us the kind of numbers we have today. And yet, as many boys and girls will confess, even problems involving Arabic numbers provide plenty of difficulty.

Willis Knapp Jones

Miami University Oxford, Ohio

*Editor's Note. Considerable present interest in this topic is apparent. See Time (March 19, 1956) 83, for a theory on Roman methods of computation with Roman numerals developed by a Harvard student, Mr. W. French Anderson, when he was still enrolled as a student in Central High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma; also CP 51 (July 1956) 145-150, for an article by the same student, "Arithmetical Computations in Roman Numerals." During the past summer (on June 26, 1956) at Saint Louis University's Seventeenth Annual Latin Teachers' Institute, Professor Chauncey Edgar Finch of Saint Louis University read a paper on "A Mediaeval Manuscript on How the Romans Calculated" (Vat. Reg. Lat. 109, f.151r-f.157r, available in microfilm copy in The Knights of Columbus Foundation for the Preservation of Historic Documents at the Vatican Library, at Saint Louis University), dealing with an unpublished account of methods allegedly used by the Romans in computations with Roman numerals.

Didacticism and Lucretian Genius

(Continued from page 5)

amplitude of manner—these with a burning sincerity, mark him above all others that smote the Latin lyre.²⁴

Constant Martha, too, would rank him foremost among Roman poets if one has regard to native genius: ". . . il n'en est pas moins vrai que Lucrèce est un des plus grands poètes de Rome, le plus grand peut-être, à ne considérer que la force native de son génie.²⁵

Schoder believes that Lucretius failed to produce a truly great poem if we look at the result as a whole. Yet he proves himself undoubtedly a *great* poet in the passages where he does rise into pure poetry, about one-fifth of the entire text.²⁶

Bailey refuses to allow any but the superficial student to judge parts of the poem separately, but insists that the claim to true greatness must rest on the spirit of the work as a whole.²⁷

Whereas it may be true in the field of literature that the whole can be better than the worst of its parts, still it is axiomatic also that, the better the parts, the better the whole. We have seen the effects of didacticism on the parts. The presence of long arid passages, loose and jagged rhythms, and unpromising material made Sikes exclaim, "Science, in fact, has nearly crushed the poetry of Lucretius as Superstition—in his belief—had crushed mankind."²⁸

Sister M. Ann Patrick Ware, S.L.

Regina Mundi Institute, Rome

NOTES

1 Raymond V. Schoder, S.J., "Poetic Imagination vs. Didacticism in Lucretius," PAPA 76 (1945) xxxix. 2 Ibid. 3 E. E. Sikes, Roman Poetry (London 1923) 4. 4 Cf. John J. H. Savage, "What Did Cicero Really Say about Lucretius?" PAPA 76 (1945) xxxviii. 5 Ad Quint. Frat. 2.9.3. 6 Silv. 2.2.76: "docti furor arduus Lucreti." 7 Am. 1.15.23-24: "Carmina sublimis tune sunt peritura Lucreti Exitio terras cum dabit una dies." 8 W. Warde Fowler, The Religious Experience of the Roman People (London 1922) 358. 9 James Shotwell, Introduction to the History of History (New York 1922) 46. 10 J. Wight Duff, A Literary History of Rome: From the Origins to the Close of the Golden Age (London 1909) 284. 11 Will Durant, The Story of Philosophy (New York 1926) 112. 12 W. Y. Sellar, The Roman Poets of the Republic (Oxford 1905) 406. 13 Andrew Lang, Letters on Literature (New York, n.d.) 92 14 M. Patin, Etudes sur la poésie latine (Paris 1914) I 118. 15 S. H. Butcher, Aristotle's Theory of Poetry and Fine Art (London 1923) 127. 16 Cf. M. Patin's famous phrase: "l'anti-Lucrèce chez Lucrèce." 17 Sigfried Behn, The Eternal Magnet (New York 1929) 91. 18 William Merrill (trans.), Lucretius "De Rerum Natura" (New York 1935) 46. 19 Constant Martha, Le poème de Lucréce (Paris 1893) xiv. 20 Mark Van Doren, The Noble Voice (New York 1945) 153. 21 Cyril Bailey, "The Mind of Lucretius," AJP 61 (1940) 278. 22 Sikes, op. cit. (supra, n. 3) 163. 23 Cyril Bailey, Lucreti De Rerum Natura (Oxford 1947) I vi n. 7. 24 Lang, op cit. (supra, n. 13) 92. 25 Martha, op. cit. (supra, n. 19) xiii-xiv. 26 Schoder, op. cit. (supra, n. 1) xxxix. 27 Cyril Bailey (trans.), Lucretius On the Nature of Things (Oxford 1910) 22-23. 28 Sikes, op. cit. (supra, n. 3) 163.

Breviora

Deaths among Classicists, I

Ernst B. Curtius, German literary historian and critic, died in Rome, April 19, 1956, at the age of seventy years. An authority on European culture, he had included in his wide range of interests mediaeval Latin literature. He was elected a visiting member of the Institute for Advanced Study, at Princeton, in 1949, and was also a corresponding fellow of the Mediaeval Academy of America. His various writings included Europäische Literatur und lateinisches Mittelalter, published in Switzerland in 1949.

Henry Bronsom Deving, retired classics professor, died in

Henry Bronson Dewing, retired classics professor, died in the nation's capital September 5, 1956, at the age of seventyfour years. A contributor to the Loeb Classical Library, he had taught at Princeton University, the University of Tena the University of North Carolina, Colorado College, and Bowdoin College. He had also been president of Athens College in Greece and dean of Robert College in Istanbul, The University of California presented him in 1953 with the degree of doctor of humane letters, honoris causa.

gree of doctor of humane letters, honoris causa.

Sister M. Edmond Fern, S.L., a member of the faculty of Webster College (Webster Groves, Missouri) for twenty years in the department of classical languages, died at the Motherhouse of the Sisters of Loretto, at Loretto, Kentucky, on May 21, 1956, at the age of eighty-two years. Her teahing career of sixty-three years included a period as president of Loretto Heights College (Loretto, Colorado). Her detorate in classical languages was from Saint Louis University.

sity.

John Garstang, British archaeologist, died in Beirut, Lebnon, during a cruise, on September 12, 1956, at the age deighty years. His archaeological researches had carried him to active work in Egypt, Asia Minor, Syria, and Palestine, a well as in his native England. There his excavations at Richester and at Richborough had enlarged the previous stor of knowledge on Roman Britain.

of knowledge on Roman Britain.

John H. Huddilston, professor emeritus of ancient civilization at the University of Maine, died at Orono, Maine, of July 26, 1956, at the age of eighty-seven years. With a caree of forty-two years at Maine (from 1900 until his retirement in 1942), he had devoted himself extensively to New Testment Greek; his teaching career included, before Maine, Baldwin-Wallace, Northwestern University, and Bryn Mawr. The degree of doctor of humane letters, honoris causa, wa awarded to him both by Baldwin-Wallace and the University of Maine.

of Maine.

Frederick Leroy Hutson, professor emeritus of classics at Princeton University, died in Princeton, New Jersey, on Argust 28, 1956, at the age of eighty-one years. A graduate of Denison University, where he taught for several years, he came to Princeton in 1903; and under the presidential aministration of Woodrow Wilson he became one of the original "preceptors," teaching Greek and Latin to small group of upper classmen. He was also registrar at Princeton from 1919 to 1925, and became emeritus in 1940, after thirty-seven years of service. Denison University named him a doctor of humane letters. honoris causa. in 1935.

humane letters, honoris causa, in 1935.

Paul Kretschmer, "Hofrat Professor," died in Vienna of March 9, 1956, at an age just under ninety years. A student at the University of Berlin in the days of Hermann Diel, Adolf Kirchhoff, Johannes Vahlen, Adolf Furtwängler, and Carl Robert, he became particularly interested in Greek diects. His dissertation, "Beiträge zur griechischen Grammatik," was followed by studies and publications in subspecialties as Corinthian vase inscriptions, the dialect of Attic vase inscriptions, and (in 1905) "Heutigen lesbischen Dialekts." His awards included honorary doctorates from the Universities of Athens and Sofia, and associations with the Academies of Vienna, Munich, Göttingen, Athens, and Hesinki.

sinki.

Roberto Paribeni, hailed as one of Italy's greatest archaeologists, died on July 14, 1956, at the age of eighty years. It had been Director of the Museo Nationale Romano; Superitendent of Antiquities of Rome and Latium; professor darchaeology and ancient history at the Universitá Catolia del Santo Cruore. His numerous publications included studies in the antiquities of Rome and the Orient.

Example Hange Potter professor exampitus of Latin and

in the antiquities of Rome and the Orient.

Franklin Hazen Potter, professor emeritus of Latin and Sanscrit at the State University of Iowa, died on April 1, 1956, at the age of eighty-six years. After his graduating from Colgate University in 1892, he taught at Ottawa University (Ottawa, Kansas) from 1892 to 1895, beginning his sixty-one years of association with the State University in 1895. Publisher of books and articles in the field of Latin teaching, he was at various times managing editor and as sociate editor of The Classical Journal, and a prime move in the annual meetings of Iowa Latin teachers at Des Moina With a life-long interest in music, he was especially distinguished as a teacher and as a Latin grammarian.

guished as a teacher and as a Latin grammarian. John Charles Robertson, emeritus professor of Greek st Victoria College, Toronto, died on May 15, 1956, at the ag of ninety-two years. A graduate of the University of Toronto in 1883, he began his long connection with Victoria College in 1894, serving as lecturer in Greek, professor, and head of the department, over a period of thirty-eight years, until his retirement in 1932. But his devotion to the classics and his close interest in matters classical continued unabated until the very eve of his death. A teacher and scholar, with m

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, until his and his ated until , with an special interest in the publication of high school texts, he was likewise distinguished as Dean of Arts at Victoria and in the Council of the Faculty of Arts and the Senate of the University of Toronto. In 1938, the University of Toronto conferred upon him the degree of Doctor of Laws, honoris

Corge Sarton, professor emeritus of the history of science at Harvard University, died at Cambridge, Massachusetts, on March 22, 1956, at the age of seventy-one years. A native of Chent, Belgium, where he received a doctorate from the University of Ghent in 1911, he had gone to England at the outbreak of World War I and to the United States in 1915. He was the founder, and continuously editor, of Isis (1912) and Orici (1936). He lectured at the University of Illinois and George Washington University prior to his joining the Harvard staff in 1920, a post from which he was retired in 1951. He published extensively, and at the time of his death was eggaed on a projected nine-volume history of science to 1900; the first volume (published in 1952) dealt with ancient science through Greece's golden age; the manuscript for the seond volume, lately delivered to the Harvard University Press, traced Hellenistic science and culture in the last three enturies B.C. Among Mr. Sarton's many distinctions were numerous honorary degrees, the universities conferring them including Brown, Chicago, and Harvard.

**Editor's Note:* Once again it is in order to express thanks

Editor's Note: Once again it is in order to express thanks for various press and journal notices and the like yielding information for these necrology notes, and to those persons who have taken time to submit materials, notably Professor B. W. Benario of Columbia University, Mr. John Dolan of the Library Fund staff at Saint Louis University, and Professor David Moore Robinson of the University of Mississippi. Reports from a wider circle of readers can obviously lead to better coverage. sippi. Reports from a lead to better coverage.

Meetings of Classical Interest, I

Meetings of Classical Interest, I

Late Spring and Summer Meetings (1956). April 14, 1956:
Sith Annual Meeting of the West Virginia Junior Classical
Lague, at West Virginia University, Morgantown, under the
ampices of the University's department of classics. . . . May
35, 1956: Annual Meeting of the Society for American
Archaeology, at Lincoln, Nebraska. . . . May 20, 1956: Annual
Classical Symposium of the Homeric Academy of Regis High
School (New York City), with a defense of the entire text
and background of the Ilias before a board of guest examiners
from Bryn Mawr, Fordham, Princeton, Trinity, and Yale. . .
July 1-August 14, 1956: University of Montreal Linguistic
Institute, the first to be offered by a Canadian university,
with programs in French, English, General Linguistics,
Translation, Amerindian Linguistics. . . . July 27-28, 1956:
Summer Meeting of the Linguistic Society of America, at the
University of Michigan, Ann Arbor. Scheduled to give the
Boyal Irish Academy. Royal Irish Academy.

October 12-13, 1956: Fall Meeting of the Kentucky Classical Association, at Morehead State College, Morehead. Robert Ladd, Covington, Kentucky, is secretary-treasurer of the

October 27, 1956: Joint Fall Meeting of the Catholic Classical Association of Greater New York (president, John F. Reilly, Sacred Heart High School, Yonkers) and the New York Classical Club (president, Gilbert Highet, Columbia University), at Fordham University.

October 27-28, 1956: Annual Meeting of the Eastern States Archaeological Federation, held jointly with the Twenty-fifth Anniversary Celebration of the Archaeological Society of New Jersey, at Trenton, New Jersey.

November 2, 1956: Annual Meeting of the Department of Classics, Missouri State Teachers Association, with a lunchen and afternoon session, at Kansas City, Missouri. Program chairman is William E. Gwatkin, Jr., University of Missouri.

November 10, 1956: Annual Convention of the New Jersey Classical Association, St. Denis Room, Hotel Dennis, Atlantic City. President of the Association is Mrs. Phyllis Winquist, Reselle Park High School.

November 11-17, 1956: American Education Week, spontored by the National Education Association in cooperation with other groups, and dealing this year with the theme "Schools for a Strong America." November 16, 1956, has been set as "National Teachers' Day."

November 22-24, 1956: Biennial Meeting of the Southern Section, The Classical Association of the Middle West and South, at Jackson, Mississippi. Secretary-Treasurer of the Southern Section is Arthur F. Stocker, University of Vir-

November 24, 1956: Autumn Meeting of The Classical Association of the Atlantic States, Chalfont-Hadden Hall, Atlantic City, New Jersey. Secretary-Treasurer of the Association is F. Gordon Stockin, Houghton College, Houghton, New

December 27-28, 1956: Annual Meeting of the Linguistic Society of America, Bellevue-Stratford Hotel, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Secretary-Treasurer of the Society is Archibald A. Hill, University of Texas, Austin 12 (Box 7790 University Station).

versity Station).

December 28-30, 1956: Eighty-eighth Annual Meeting of the American Philological Association, in conjunction with the Fifty-eighth General Meeting of the Archaeological Institute of Amercia, at the Benjamin Franklin Hotel, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, "at the invitation of the University of Pennsylvania, Temple University, Bryn Mawr College, Haverford College, and Swarthmore College, and other universities, colleges, and learned societies of the Philadelphia area." The second day will feature a joint panel of the two organizations on "The Nature of the Classical." Secretary-Treasurer of the American Philological Association is Paul L. MacKendrick, University of Wisconsin, Madison. General Secretary of the Archaeological Institute of America is Cedric Boulter, University of Cincinnati Library, Cincinnati.

Miscellanea

Cicero, Juvenal gleefully informs us, once had the unhappy inspiration to include in a bit of verse the line, o fortunatam natam me consule Romam! A much greater poet than Cicero, Heinrich Heine, blundered as badly in closing a poem with zu deinen süssen Füssen, but his mockers were contemporary, and Heine could omit it later from editions of his work. editions of his work.

Perhaps the best-known example of a monosyllabic ending to a line of dactylic hexameter is Horace's parturient montes, nascetur ridiculus mus (Ars P. 139; see Lucretius 5.25 and Vergil, G. 1.81). There must exist many other instances of this sort of effective termination. Two in Juvenal impressed me recently: Lectus erat Ccdro Procula minor, urceoli sex (3.203), where the pitiful effect of the diminutive is heightened, and et ruit ante aram summi Iovis ut vetulus bos (10.268), where the thump of Priam's fall is distinctly heard.

I am astonished that no study has been made of ancient barbs directed against the beard, after coming upon such pungent comments as that of Ammianus (Anth. Gr. 11.156): Ό πώγων φθειρῶν ποιητής, οὐχὶ φρενῶν γέγονεν, "A beard creates lice, not brains," and that of Jerome (locus lost): "If there is holiness in a beard, then a goat is hyper-sanctified."

In an article, "Urbs Roma and Some English Poets," (CJ 48 [1953] 179-183), the writer called attention to a number of English poets who, in various works, had dwelt on Rome and her ruined glory. To the English poets may be added these foreign poets: from Spain, Francisco de Quevedo y Villegas (1580-1645), Rome in Her Ruins; Rodrigo Caro (1573-1647), The Ruins of Italica; Manuel Maria de Arjona (1771-1820), The Ruins of Rome; from France, Charles de Chênedolle (fl. 1800), The Young Matron among the Ruins of Rome; and from Italy, Giovanni Guidiccioni (1500-1541), To Rome—A Sonnet. Leo Max Kaiser

Loyola University of Chicago

NOTES

1 Translation in Thomas Walsh, Hispanic Anthology, New York 1920. 2 Translation by the English poetess, Felicia Hemans. 3 As far as I know, not translated into English. 4 Translation in H. W. Longfellow, The Poets and Poetry of Europe (Philadelphia 1871).

Current Announcement on Woodrow Wilson **Fellowships**

The National Woodrow Wilson Fellowship Program, operating under the Association of Graduate Schools of the Association of American Universities, opened its canvassing for nominations toward fellowships for the academic year 1957-1958 with the start of the academic year this September.

The fellowships are awarded upon invitation only, subse-

The fellowships are awarded upon invitation only, subsequent to the nomination by faculty members of promising candidates. Nominations are requested on the basis of the highest qualities of intellect, character, and personality. It is the intent of the Program to provide an opportunity for young men and women who possess these qualities to undertake a year of advanced study in a graduate school of their choice and thus to determine whether they wish to enter the

profession of teaching and scholarship.

In the past year, 174 Fellowships were awarded from among 1671 nominations, received from faculty members at 460 institutions. These Fellows come from 103 different colleges and universities; they were scheduled to be attending in 1956-1957 44 graduate schools; their fields of study cover

17 departments.

in 1956-1957 44 graduate schools; their fields of study cover 17 departments.

Currently the Fellowships are restricted to awards for study in the fields of the social sciences and humanities, and they are designed primarily for those who have not yet begun formal graduate work. Students from any college or university will be considered. Some 200 Fellows will be appointed for the coming academic year 1957-1958. Each will be granted a sum of money sufficient to guarantee him an adequate living for the year of his incumbency, the normal stipend for an unmarried Fellow being \$1,250 plus an amount to cover tuition. Adjustments in the stipend are made for married Fellows and in cases of other special considerations.

Twelve Regional Committees carry on the work of recruiting and selecting Fellows from the United States and Canada. Fellows are appointed only after a personal interview before one of these Committees. To permit the Committees to complete their work in good time, nominations for the Fellowships must be entered prior to November 15, 1956. If the address of the Regional Chairman is not available locally, nominations may be sent to Professor Richard C. Boys, Director, National Woodrow Wilson Fellowship Program, Rackham Graduate School, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan. If so addressed, they should be submitted as far as possible before the deadline.

Robert F. Goheen, Past Director

Princeton University

Two Manuscripts of Rinuccio's Vita Aesopi

In his very thorough study¹ of the contributions of Rinuccio da Castiglione of Arezzo to the interpretation of Greek literature, Dean Putnam Lockwood provides descriptions of fourteen manuscripts containing Rinuccio's translation of the Vita of Aesop, three of which are considered as being copies of early printed editions. Eleven of these also contain Rinuccio's translation of Aesop's Fabulae, including the three copied from printed editions. Note is also taken of the existence of one other manuscript (Aretinus 181), which contains only three of the 100 fables making up the collection. In addition, Lockwood calls attention to the fact that there are two other manuscripts—Escurial. o. III. 26 and Vat. Lat. 5129—which had not been seen by him.²

In 1934 B. E. Perry published a list of four more manuscripts, thus bringing to twenty the number containing either the Vita alone or the Vita and the Fabulae together.³

It is the purpose of this note to provide, as an aid for future students of Rinuccio's Aesop, a brief description of Vat. Lat. 5129—one of the two manuscripts mentioned by Lockwood as not having been seen by him—and also to call

Vat. Lat. 5129—one of the two manuscripts mentioned by Lockwood as not having been seen by him—and also to call attention to one other manuscript not listed by either Lockwood or Perry (Vat. Ross. 1124).⁴

Vat. Lat. 5129 (f.lr-f.27r) is undated. Both dedicatory letters are omitted, but the Vita is preceded by the Provemium and the Argumentum, and is followed by the Commentarium. No fables are included. The full text of the material preceding and following the lacunas near the end of the Vita is present, but no space is left blank to indicate the lacuna, nor is any note made of it in the margin. A comparison of its text with Lockwood's text of the Provenium, Argumentum, and Commentarium edited from three manuscripts (Cantabrig. in bibl. Coll. Trinitatis, R. I. 39 [=T]; Baliolensis 131

[=B]; and Vat. Ottobon. Lat. 1536 [=O]), indicates that in word order it agrees somewhat more closely with T (regards by Lockwood as the best of all the manuscripts) than with either B or O. Numerous omissions, however, render the value of the manuscript somewhat questionable.

Vat. Ross. 1124 (f.83r-f.100v) has a note at the end of the Vita indicating that the scribe, Joannespetrus de Sexto, concluded the copying of this portion of the codex November 4, 1487. The manuscript contains both of the dedicatory letter, the Procemium, the Argumentum, and the Vita, but omit the Commentarium and the Fabulae. A gap of five or in the Vita, and the note, Hic d, is found in the margin, with the end of the last word lost, presumably from a trimming of the edges of the leaves.

In discussing the early printed editions of Ringeria.

of the last word lost, presumably from a trimming of the edges of the leaves.

In discussing the early printed editions of Rinuccion Aesop Lockwood lists family 2 of these editions as consisting of Hain 269 and two others printed from it—Hain 20 (=G) and Hain 281, the latter having appeared in 148. He writes of Hain 269: Originem a nescioquo deterior codice duxit, qui (sicut O et Marcian, xi. 105) Procem. if "Thomam tituli sancte Susanne presbiterum Cardinalem hodie Nicolaum papam quintum" missum fecerat. Ad lar. nam in Vita nulla est adnotatio. Also, in discussing the derivation of codex Vat. Urb. Lat. 226 from G (one of the printed editions in family 2), Lockwood points out that several erroneous readings are shared by the two in the decatory letters and the Procemiums: Epist. 1.5 alms equantur for alium sequantur; 7 ammiratione for amiratione; Epist. 2.7 hortotare for hortatore; Procem. Il quamvis for quivis; 24 iuxta for vix. In Vat. Ross. 12 the Procemium contains the introduction listed above as being peculiar to O, Marcian. xi. 105, and the source of family 2 of the early editions. Furthermore, most of the error listed above as common to G and Urb. Lat. 226 in the introductory letters and the Procemium are found in Ros. 1124 also: Epist. 1.7 ammiratione; Epist. 2.7 horton, Procem. 18 quamvis; 24 iuxta. All of this points to a ver close relationship between Ross. 1124 and family 2 of the early printed editions. On the other hand, the fact that Ross. 1124 retains the correct reading (alium sequantur) it Epist. 1.5 and, unlike the printed editions of family 2 take note of the lacuna in the Vita, suggests that this mamscript comes from some copy closely related to the sourc of family 2 rather than from some one of the printed editions. In any case, however, its value is probably not great since, as is indicated by Lockwood, the source of family 2 was a deterior codex.

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Saint Louis University

NOTES

Chauncey Edgar Finch

NOTES

1 Dean Putnam Lockwood "De Rinucio Aretino Gracarum Litterarum Interprete," HSCPh 24 (1913) 51-109. Lockwood, op. cit. (supra, n.) 62-64. 3 B. E. Perry, "In Greek Source of Rinuccio's Aesop" CP 29 (1934) 53-62. 4 The author wishes to express his gratitude to the Director of The Knights of Columbus Foundation for the Preservation of Historic Documents at the Vatican Library, Saint Louis University, for permission to make use of microfilm capits of Vat. Lat. 5129, Vat. Ross. 1124, and Vat. Urb. Lat. 22 included among the holdings of the Foundation. 3 Cl. Lockwood, op. cit. (supra, n.l) 61. 6 Ibid. 70-71. 7 Im. 65. 8 Ibid. 64. 9 A slight error has been made by Lockwood in indicating that the reading of Urb. Lat. 225 is altrum equantur. While it is true that the verb takes the form equantur, the preceding word appears correctly as alim.

Quaedam Personalia

From the American Philological Association's Preliminary Circular: Summer 1956, prepared by the Secretary-Treasure of the APA, Paul L. MacKendrick, University of Wisconsis, comes information of Guggenheim Awards to the following members of the Association: H. Caplan (Cornell); Glandik Downey (Dumbarton Oaks); G. M. Kirkwood (Cornell); B. M. W. Knox (Yale); Kemp Malone (Johns Hopkins); G. E. Morrow (Pennsylvania); M. I. Wiencke (Yale). Further, according to the Circular, there were Fulbright Grants of Gerald F. Else (Iowa), to Italy; and to F. R. Walton (Fleida State), to Greece. Finally, four out of twelve foundation sponsored visiting professorships went to classicists: White Visiting Professorships to Robert P. Strickler (Southwester at Memphis), to Bard; Mary McKinney (Albion), to Austin College; New York Foundation visiting professorships in From the American Philological Association's Prelimi

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humo Meinecke (Michigan), to Gettysburg College; and to Carles C. Microw (Carleton), to Colorado College.

Clyde Murley (Northwestern) who last year was a Whit-my visiting professor at the University of the Redlands, is in par a visiting professor at the State University of Iowa.

Dorrance S. White (State University of Iowa) is at pres-et on the classics staff of the University of North Carolina.

George E. Mylonas, of Washington University and the inversity of Athens, who during 1955-1956 was with the astitute for Advanced Study, received from King Paul of Greece the Cross of the Taxiarch of George I, next to the what order available to the Hellenic monarch, in recognism of Professor Mylonas's archaeological discoveries in frace.

Book Reviews

Constantine J. Vourveris, Παιδιά καὶ Παιδεία (Σωκράτης— Πάτων-'Αριστοτέλης). Athens 1956 (in Modern Greek).

This study by Constantine J. Vourveris, professor of ancest Greek in the School of Philosophy of the University of libms, is not intended to be a study of the words παιδιά and sale as mere words. Rather, Mr. Vourveris is interested a demonstrating the subtle but very important role that its expressed in words play in a civilization, ideas that may be formulated briefly in words but which express a whole mage of relationships with other ideas and with institutions. Such is the case with the little word παιδιά, which Professor Yourveris enthusiastically traces in the philosophies of Socnes, Plato, and Aristotle. As he is primarily a Platonic scholar, it is not in the least surprising that Professor Vourvis concentrates most heavily on Plato, particularly the lages. In this brief work, Παιδιά καὶ Παιδεία, his task is to how the relationship of παιδιά to παιδεία in the thought of the philosophic triad, Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle, and the attribution of παιδιά (which Vourveris translates as the ferman "Spiel") to παιδεία. This he does with considerable durity and cogency. darity and cogency.

This work, though written in clear and concise modern paristic? Greek, contains a table of contents in German in addition to the one in Greek, as well as a brief summary of the Greek text in German for the convenience of classical sholars who are not completely fluent in modern Greek.

Brandeis University John E. Rexine

Vernon J. Bourke, St. Thomas Aquinas, On the Truth of the Catholic Faith: Summa Contra Gentiles: Book Three, Providence: Newly Translated, with an Introduction and Mats. New York, Doubleday Image Books, 1956. Two vol-mes: pp. 278 and 282. Each, 85c (with hard cover, \$2.50).

me: pp. 278 and 282. Each, 85c (with hard cover, \$2.50). The Doubleday Image Books form a library of Catholic witings, including works on philoscophy, education, history, and contemporary social problems; also biographies, novels, and poetry. Published in paper-bound, inexpensive editions, times books are intended to reach the widest possible audience. The criteria laid down by the editors in selecting works for this series are: they must be well written, inspiring to the spirit, and of lasting value to the reading audience. For the most part, Image Books are reprints of original, more expensive editions. Occasionally, the book represents a contribution not previously published, as in the present work, in a far as this work is a new translation, with introduction and notes. The editors deserve recognition for this service and notes. The editors deserve recognition for this service to an ever increasing reading public of Catholic works.

The Third Book of the Summa Contra Gentiles, here translated and annotated by Professor Vernon J. Bourke, continues that and annotated by Professor Vernon J. Bourke, continues that Thomas' defense of the truths of the Catholic Faith, and is an exposition on Divine Providence. Its three main divisions are: (1) God as the end and good of all things; (2) God's general government of things; (3) Providence and rational creatures. With incomparable clarity, Saint Thomas discusses such topics as the purpose of man's life, man's desire for the vision of God, and various moral questions, particularly those related to matrimony.

The translator explicitly aims at a literal version, without

The translator explicitly aims at a literal version, without my attempt to "improve" the literary style of Saint Thomas (latred, p. 20). A competent Latinist, known for his accusate translation of the Confessions of Saint Augustine (Fathers of the Church Series), and a distinguished Thom-

istic scholar, Mr. Bourke has produced a work which thoroughly fulfills the triple criteria posited by the editors of Image Books.

Marcus Anthony Haworth. S.J. Marcus Anthony Howorth, S.J.

Saint Louis University

Olwen Brogan, Roman Gaul. Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1953. Pp. x, 250. \$4.25.

sity Press, 1953. Pp. x, 250. \$4.25.

In concise account this book retails the story of Roman Gaul, its conquest during the Republic, its consequent organization under the Empire. The work tells the fascinating story of the building of Roman roads, the planning of frontier defenses, the laying out of towns and villas, the construction of city homes, town walls, public buildings, temples, theatres, and aqueducts. Gaul's natural products are described—its cereals, wine, olive, timber, livestock, minerals, and quarried stone; its industries—pottery, oil lamps, bricks, glass, and metal works; its extensive trading with all parts of the Empire; its works of art—in stone and metal, painting and mosaic; the transition from the grim religion of the Druids to the varied cults of the Empire, down to the final victory of Christianity. The last chapter treats cursorily the fate of Gaul from the time of Diocletian's reforms through the last two centuries of the Empire in the West.

The explicit purpose of the book is not to "attempt to in-

The explicit purpose of the book is not to "attempt to in-The explicit purpose of the book is not to "attempt to instruct the expert, but only to serve as an introduction to students and travellers who may wish to get a general picture of Roman Gaul, its history and chief monuments" (p. v). That purpose is definitely achieved. No reference notes are given. However, the interested reader may pursue his study of the subject, guided by the four pages of bibliography of ancient and modern sources, which conclude the book.

Marcus Anthony Haworth, S.J.

Saint Louis University

Saint Louis University

Sven Lundström, Übersetzungstechnische Untersuchungen auf dem Gebiete der Christlichen Latinität. Lunds Universitets Arsskrift. N.F. Avd. 1, Bd 51, No. 3. Lund, C. W. K. Gleerup, 1955. Pp. 312. Kr. 30:—

Gleerup, 1955. Pp. 312. Kr. 30:—

In an article in the Festschrift Alban Dold, Father E. Dekkers observed: 'Une étude sur la technique de la traduction dans l'antiquité serait des plus utiles" (Beuron [1952] 136, n. 81). This need has now been admirably filled by Professor Lundström's extensive study of the techniques employed by early Christian writers in translating from Greek into Latin. He divides his work into two major parts: lexicographical and syntactical. In the first he discusses errors which have come into a translation through mispronunciation, the substitution of letters, the misunderstanding of words, and the like. In the second part of the treatise he discusses the mistakes made through the false translation of words, and similar defects. The book includes a very useful index of Latin and Greek words and a list of the authors cited. It should prove invaluable for the study of certain authors like Irenaeus, who are largely extant in rather poor Latin versions. Latin versions. M. Joseph Costelloe, S.J.

Johns Hopkins University

Sister Marie Vianney O'Reilly, C.S.J., Sancti Aurelii Augustini De Excidio Urbis Romae Sermo: A Critical Text and Translation with Introduction and Commentary. Catholic University of America Patristic Studies, Volume 89. Washington, D.C., 1955. Pp. xvii, 95.

The De Excidio Urbis Romae is a sermon delivered by Saint Augustine not long after the capture of Rome by Alaric in 410. It contains few specific details with regard to this catastrophe that could be of interest to historians, but it does give sound and consoling advice to Christians of all times who may be scandalized by similar disasters. Sister Marie Vianney has based her text on the Codex Wolfenbüttel Acose. In the extensive apparatus criticus she gives all the variant readings as found in twenty different manuscripts and the four basic printed editions. The printing is excellent. I noticed but one error in the text: patientiate for patientiae (p. 72). The translation is smooth and literate.

M. Joseph Costelloe, S.J.

Johns Hopkins University

Tantum interest, non qualia, sed qualis quisque patitur.—Sti. August. De Civ. D. 1.8.

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